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ABSTRACT

Only by examining the way teachers actually use instructional time and engage students in the teaching-learning process can educators gain a clearer understanding of student learning. A critical examination of students' opportunity to learn should include the goals a teacher holds for students and the tasks assigned, the teaching methods utilized, and the classroom management strategies employed by the teacher. The goals of this study are to describe and analyze how social studies teachers translate goals into teaching activities, to explain why teachers make particular decisions by examining the primary influences on the teacher, and to understand the consequences of particular teacher goals, teaching methods, and management strategies on students' opportunity to learn. Two U.S. history teachers from each of six high schools were selected for observation and analysis. Time and activity information is displayed in a series of tables and charts in the appendix. The data raise questions concerning the appropriate time spent in academic versus management activities. More research is needed on the intermediate role of communication about learning tasks. Given the inherent tension in social studies between content coverage and in-depth discussion and skill development, perhaps the key is to assist teachers in developing instructional methods and managerial strategies which allow them to involve and maintain the attention of students while sustaining a brisk pace toward content-related goals. A 92-item bibliography is included. (JB)

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Goals, Instruction, and Management in High School History Classes

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Introduction to the Problem

During the 1980's we have witnessed a spate of educational reform reports concerned with the quantity and quality of student learning in the American high school. Multiple reform reports focus generally on the quantity of courses and their curricular content (Bennett,1987; Boyer,1983; National Commission on Excellence in Education,1983; Westbury,1988), leading to a concomitant increase in high school graduation requirements and academic course taking (NCES,1987). While policies which increase student exposure to academic coursework have been shown to improve student performance (Schmidt,1983; Sebring,1987; Walberg & Sharahan,1983), additional increases in student learning may be achieved by improving the teaching-learning process. Multiple studies have pointed to the critical role of the teacher's instructional practices as the key to increasing student learning, and raised the concern that few teachers seem to successfully engage students in tasks which require higher order thinking skills (Cuban,1984; Goodlad,1984; McNeil,1986; Sizer,1984). Clearly, simply increasing the quantity of time allocated to a subject, or revising curriculum guidelines, does not guarantee that specific student learning goals will be met. Only by examining the way teachers actually use instructional time and engage students in the teaching-learning process can we gain a clearer understanding of student learning. One way to assess student learning is through the concept of opportunity to learn (Devault, Harnischfeger, & Wiley,1978; Harnischfeger & Wiley,1985). Moving well beyond a gross quantitative measure of scheduled time for instruction, the opportunity to learn concept seeks to analyze the quality of a teaching-learning situation. Thus, a critical examination of students' opportunity to learn will include the goals a teacher holds for students and the tasks (both in-class and homework) assigned, the teaching methods utilized (e.g., fact

oriented lecture versus the critical discourse of a discussion), and the classroom management strategies employed by the teacher to maintain student involvement in the lesson.

This same questioning of the degree of student learning has occupied social studies educators in recent years. In line with the larger reform movement, critics have voiced concern over poor student performance on tests of United States History factual knowledge (Finn & Ravitch,1988). Widespread attention to the problem has resulted in increased social studies course requirements (Bradley Commission,1988; Hahn,1985; Finn & Ravitch,1988). Although increased exposure to social studies coursework may result in additional student learning, it may bring us no closer to meeting certain specific goals. For example, many social studies reformers call for an infusion of higher cognitive level skills, such as critical judgement, into the curriculum (Bradley Commission,1988; Hahn,1985; McKee,1988), which may not be achieved by simply spending more time with traditional teaching methods and curricular materials. Unfortunately, reforming teaching practice has proved to be much more problematic than simply altering the content of a course or increasing course requirements (Cuban,1984); witness the fact that the same teacher centered social studies methods have been in place since 1916 (Armento,1986; Morrissett,1981; Nelson,1985). As the failure of the New Social Studies showed, the teacher is the key to instruction and the broker of curricular goals (Shaver,et al.,1979). Thus, if we wish to increase student opportunity to gain critical social studies skills, the role of the teacher in the teaching-learning process must be carefully analyzed.

Closer examination of social studies teaching reveals a discrepancy between the methods espoused by teachers and those observed by researchers. For example, the majority of social studies teachers in a number of studies

reported that they are process oriented, frequently use discussion techniques, and utilize an inquiry or social science approach more often than other teachers (Morrissett,1977; Wiley & Race,1977; Weiss,1978). Researchers present a different picture of classrooms characterized by very little substantive discussion and a preponderance of lecture/recitation, which is dominated by questions focussing on recall and comprehension (Armento,1986; Engle & Ochoa,1988; Fancett & Hawke,1982; McKee,1988; Shaver,et al.,1978; Sirotnik,1983; Wiley & Race,1977). After lecture/recitation, seatwork, typified by worksheets all too often unintegrated with other tasks (Cornbleth,1985), and testing, with a focus on recall (Goodlad,1984), are the most common teaching techniques (Weiss,1978). Clearly, few social studies teachers utilize inquiry techniques such as critical discussion, role playing, library research, or debates (Ravitch & Finn,1987; Stake,et al.,1978; Weiss,1978) that would be likely to promote the "critical habits of mind" necessary to thoroughly study history, and succeed in other life tasks (Bradley Commission,1988).

Review of the Relevant Literature

Increasing students' opportunity to learn by improving the teaching-learning process would appear to be a difficult task given the observed disjuncture between certain educational goals (e.g., the development of critical judgement skills) and classroom reality. Examination of the factors which influence a teacher's decisions and practice will help to understand this disjuncture and highlight the possible options for improving the teaching-learning process. The Conceptual Model of Factors Influencing Teacher Plans and Activities (figure 1) and the accompanying List of Factors (table 1) elucidate the major influences on the teacher as he/she translates goals into plans and teaching activities. This Conceptual Model is heavily

influenced by the work of Harnischfeger & Wiley (1985). In their Teaching-Learning Process model, they track the influence of school factors on teaching priorities and plans, illustrate how these factors and plans determine actual teaching activities, and demonstrate how the teaching-learning process impacts on student learning. (See figures 2-4 in the appendix.) The literature relevant to these factors which influence instruction will be reviewed, considering first the more distal, and progressing toward the more proximal determinants of the teaching-learning process.

External (National and State Level) Influences

Given the decentralized nature of our educational system, local educators have a great deal of autonomy in their curricular and instructional decisions. Nonetheless, texts, curricular objectives, and tests developed outside of the local context can exert tremendous influence. For example, the influence of a text is both extremely direct (the teacher considers the text in his/her planning, and the text may also determine the teacher's beliefs (Schmidt,et al.,1987)), and indirect (text availability, exacerbated by the undue influence of adoption states (Fitzgerald,1979; Patrick & Hawke,1982) helps to determine state and school district level curriculum and objectives (Ehman & Hahn,1981)). Objectives developed by national organizations (e.g., Bradley Commission,1988; SSEC,1982) may well be incorporated by local districts; however, certain objectives such as the development of problem solving skills have been incorporated into curriculum guides (Wiley & Race,1977), and never realized in classroom instruction (Stanley,1985). Recently, the accountability reform movement has resulted in new testing programs to assess objectives which exert influence on both administrators and teachers. Certainly, the influence of external characteristics will vary by school district, but must be examined in order to fully understand the context of

teacher decision-making.

Local Context of Teaching

Starting at the upper left corner of the Conceptual Model with community, parental, and board priorities, one can trace the local contextual influences on teacher decisions. Although communities certainly differ in their goals, especially by SES (Anyon,1981), researchers have noted that many communities prefer a conservative, citizenship transmission approach to social studies (Jarolimek,1981; Morrissett,1981; Shaver,1981), realized through a curriculum which stresses coverage of factual content (Barth,1984; Morrissett & Haas,1981; Newmann,1988). The dominance of a lecture/recitation method, keyed to a traditional text, appears to often fit community expectations (Fancett & Hawke,1982). In addition, social studies teachers report a fear of parental reprisal if controversial issues are discussed (Jarolimek,1981).

While the influence of the community is pervasive, it is indirect, and carried out by administrators who select staff (Shaver,1981) and set policies (Johnson & Brooks,1979). Although adminstrators affect teaching through the setting of objectives, curriculum, and tests, multiple researchers have noted situations in which the administrators stress management over instructional concerns (McNeil,1986; Metz,1978; Morrissett,1981). McNeil's study of four Wisconsin high schools dramatically demonstrates how tight administrative control over teachers, in tandem with an emphasis on school maintenance and student discipline, can hinder the teaching-learning process. Administrators determine the organization of schooling (e.g., curriculum, quantity of schooling, ability grouping structure) as well as administrative procedures (e.g., announcements and student advising procedures), which in particular have the potential to substantially reduce or interfere with instructional time.

Moving closer to the teaching-learning process, administrators also determine teacher working conditions. For example, the typical social studies teacher instructs five classes, with two to three preparations (Farmer,1984), and 25-26 students per class (Rutter,1986). In addition to the normative duty or supervision period, social studies teachers (in part because 75% of them are men), carry an extremely heavy extra-curricular burden (Rutter,1986). Social studies teachers are 2-3 times more likely to coach than teachers of any other subject (Rutter,1986). Such working conditions may well inhibit certain teaching methods (e.g., inquiry activities or essay exams) which require substantive preparation and/or grading time (Morrissett,1981).

Of all of the possible influences on instruction, teachers report that their teaching colleagues provide the most assistance in terms of curricular and instructional ideas (Weiss,1978). Nonetheless, given that teaching colleagues are also influenced by community and administrative priorities, it is possible that colleagues can exert a conservative, as well as an innovative or liberalizing influence. For example, teachers have been observed to pressure their peers to maintain control and quiet in the classroom (Denscombe,1980; Morrissett,1981). In the area of social studies, researchers have documented teacher resentment against peers who utilize teaching methods and management strategies which make students harder to control, or hinder meeting the normative goal of knowledge transmission (Eslinger & Superka,1982; McKee,1988; Shaver,1979;1981).

Direct Influence of Teacher Background and Beliefs

Clearly, a teacher's background (both education and experience) exerts direct influence on the teacher's beliefs, goals, plans, and teaching activities. Of course, the depth and organization of a teacher's subject matter knowledge, as well as the caliber of his/her pedagogic knowledge,

greatly determine the quality of instruction (Cornbleth,1985; Wilson & Wineburg,1988). Limitations in content and pedagogic knowledge may result in a text based lecture/recitation approach to social studies teaching (Common,1982).

The belief systems of teachers tend to be extremely strong and resistant to change (Nespor,1987; Ross,1987), and are heavily influenced by years of observing teaching (Lortie,1975). While social studies researchers tend to support "liberal" goals such as reflective inquiry and the development of social science skills (Morrissett & Haas,1982; Shermis & Barth,1985), teachers tend to support the more "conservative" beliefs and goals typified by a knowledge transmission approach, with lecture/recitation as the most efficient means to reaching that goal (Goodlad,1984; McNeil,1986; Stake,et al.,1978). Typically, a teacher's background and belief system will rationally filter influences before making plans and taking action; however, it is possible for certain factors to influence teacher plans and actions without deliberate filtering or decision making. For example, the teacher with limited content knowledge may rely on the text to make instructional decisions for her/him. Moreover, the demands of the classroom situation, which have their greatest impact during interactive teaching, may have a direct influence on teaching activities.

Demands of the Classroom Situation

According to the Conceptual Model, the classroom management demands placed on the teacher are the most proximal influences on teaching plans and especially, interactive teaching activities. This ecological dimension of classroom teaching has long been ignored in social studies research (Armento,1986), and has been rarely addressed at the high school level (Doyle,1986). Considering the different academic orientations of elementary

and secondary teachers, as well as the disparate situations they face, this review must be sensitive to grade level distinctions. In contrast to many elementary teachers, it is possible that the average secondary teacher does not fully grasp the interrelated nature of instruction and classroom management. Analysis of key research findings will highlight the complex role of classroom demands on the instructional decisions of secondary teachers.

Utilizing Teaching Methods and Management Strategies to Cope with Complexity

The incredible complexity of classroom situations which has been demonstrated at the elementary (Jackson,1968) and secondary levels (Doyle,1986), presents teachers with the challenge of orchestrating multiple activities for relatively large groups of students. Teachers have been observed to utilize an array of classroom management and teaching techniques to create an effective learning environment. A landmark study by Kounin (1970) resulted in new concepts and vocabulary to describe the management techniques of teachers which minimized student off-task behavior. Although Kounin's study has limitations (first and second grade classrooms only; only one day of observation; data summed over all teachers; context and nature of tasks not attended to), the resulting vocabulary or concepts have considerable face validity. Successful classroom managers communicated awareness of student behavior (withitness); maintained appropriate pacing of activities (momentum); and made clear patterns of participation (group alerting). In primary school seatwork situations, Kounin found avoiding satiation to be important; perhaps the same can be said of certain routines and teaching methods at the secondary level.

Though Kounin's study utilized only primary classrooms, the importance of skills similar to withitness, maintaining momentum, and group alerting in maintaining student on-task behavior has been shown by multiple researchers

within the teacher effectiveness genre. These studies have been carried out at the elementary and junior high level (e.g., Evertson,et al.,1980; Sanford & Evertson,1983; Sanford & Evertson,1981), and often only within mathematics and English classes, so one has to be cautious in generalizing these results to a high school social studies situation. While these studies also suffer from methodological problems (the process-product methodology aggregates observations over teachers and takes them out of context; relationships are assumed to be linear (e.g., the more praise and routines, the better, despite evidence to the contrary concerning praise (Brophy,1988) and Kounin's (1970) warning of satiation); and engagement data is often collected sporadically) the studies confirm Kounin's findings and reveal the importance of clarity of communication (in terms of directions, handling behavior, and presentation of instruction). Thus, the studies of Kounin and Evertson, et al., emphasize the intertwined nature of instruction and classroom management.

The Situation of High School Teachers

The interlocking nature of instructional and classroom management skills has been demonstrated conceptually (Harnischfeger & Wiley,1985) and in a range of empirical studies (Brophy,1986; Doyle,1986). According to Harnischfeger and Wiley's conceptualization of the teaching-learning process (see figures 2-4 in the appendix), enactment of tasks and the maintenance of performance standards are dependent on the teacher's managing and implementing skills. The time needed for students to understand and learn a task is heavily influenced by the teacher's presenting skills, among the most important of which is clarity of communication. Yet, even if a task is presented clearly and implemented efficiently, student learning (and ultimately achievement) is usually reliant on the motivating skills of the teacher, including motivational techniques, monitoring skills, and appropriate utilization of

strategies such as pacing and wait-time. Clearly, presenting skills can reduce the time needed for students to learn, but managing and motivating skills ultimately determine the time students actively devote to learning. Thus, a teacher's managing and implementing skills influence both the time students need to learn a task and students' active learning time, which are the direct determinants of student learning.

While the interdependent nature of instructional and managerial skills may be clear to elementary teachers who are educated to be generalists and strive to teach both academic and behavioral skills, high school teachers may not recognize the importance of effective classroom management in meeting their instructional goals. In contrast to elementary teachers, secondary teachers possess a content orientation, less exposure to pedagogic coursework, and hold goals for students that are more exclusively directed toward content.

This content orientation seems to dictate the use of particular teaching methods and management strategies by many high school teachers. Perhaps this phenomenon is best illustrated through the type of leadership chosen by the teacher. For example, Waller (1961:1932) notes a distinction between institutionalized and personalized leadership: the first teacher relies on the rules of the institution for his/her authority, while the latter develops a personal rapport with students. Common (1985) shows that such leadership styles are linked with particular teaching techniques. In her conception of the dichotomy, the teacher who relies on institutional or de jure authority tends to maintain control by treating knowledge as objective truth to be presented by the teacher and text. In contrast, the teacher who builds personal or de facto leadership treats knowledge subjectively; knowledge is to be sought through shared inquiry with students (Common,1985; Marshall,1988). Evidence of the dominant institutional leadership approach abounds. Secondary teachers have been observed to maintain control and authority through

lecture/recitation methods (Adams & Biddle,1970; McNeil,1986); by requiring students to give the one answer the teacher wants (Edwards,1980; Hammersely,1974); and by enforcing a teacher-student-teacher interaction pattern (McHoul,1978). Furthermore, some teachers protect their academic expertise by maintaining distance from students (Cusick,1973), and by avoiding controversial and personal topics (McNeil,1986).

The reliance of many secondary teachers on institutionalized leadership, teacher content authority, and lecture/recitation methods can be better understood by examining a recent body of research on academic tasks. Unlike the early process-product studies which ignored task type, were typically carried out in elementary classrooms, and often focussed on structured basic instruction in mathematics and English, the academic work research base has taken the opposite tack. Utilizing extensive case study observations, secondary teachers have been observed to rely heavily on lower cognitive level routine (familiar) tasks (typically comprising at least 2/3 of tasks observed), while teachers less frequently present students with higher cognitive level (novel) tasks (Doyle,1983; Doyle & Sanford,1985). A major finding of these studies is that students press to reduce ambiguity and risk in classroom situations, and therefore prefer familiar tasks (as observed in a small town high school by Allen,1986; in urban high schools by McKee,1988; and in junior and senior high settings by Doyle & Sanford,1985). Since students often hesitate and may present the teacher with management difficulties when asked to complete a novel task, secondary teachers have been observed to respond by: providing a safety net such as extra credit to reduce risk (Doyle & Sanford,1985); lowering standards for completion (McNeil,1986; Pollard,1980; Thornton,1988; Tobin & Gallagher,1987b); and simply never attempting such tasks (e.g., Ashton & Webb,1986). Ultimately, the contribution of these

studies (as exemplified by the MAT study of Doyle,etal.,1985; Doyle & Sanford,1985) lies in describing how both students and teachers cope with the difficulty of higher cognitive level tasks. In fact, some classrooms in the MAT study were observed to be well managed and highly "productive"; yet, these classrooms were driven by the logic of classroom management. Success was achieved by lowering student opportunity to learn, with few novel tasks presented to students. Unfortunately, the MAT study fails to provide three types of information that could further aid our understanding: little information is provided on the school level context of the classrooms observed; the focus on tasks assigned precludes more thorough attention to teaching methods; and the distribution of opportunity within a class is not discussed.

While the findings of the academic work literature call attention to one form of truncated opportunity to learn (the frequent avoidance of novel tasks by teachers and students), opportunity is also defined by the involvement of the individual student in class activities. Recent studies in secondary science education (Gallagher & Tobin,1987; Tobin & Gallagher,1987a; Tobin & Gallagher,1987b) raise the question of differential opportunity and engagement of individual students during class activities, especially within lecture/recitation segments. As in the academic work studies, Gallagher and Tobin observed teacher-centered instruction which was oriented toward material coverage and lower cognitive level tasks. Further, recitation segments were dominated by five to seven target students who answered 60% of all questions, and in particular, virtually all of the higher cognitive level questions. The identification of key target students in an intensive observational study of science classrooms corroborates evidence from an early process-product videotape study carried out in high school social studies classes (Adams & Biddle,1970). As in the more recent science study, target social studies

students sat in the front center of the room, and consumed 63% of the response opportunities.

Secondary Teacher Rationales for Favored Methods and Strategies

Given the desire of many social studies teachers to cover content and protect their authority and classroom control, extensive use of lecture/recitation and the utilization of target students would seem to facilitate their goals. Nevertheless, extensive use of both methods may seriously limit a student's opportunity to learn. How do secondary teachers rationalize use of these methods? First, secondary students are seen as responsible for their own behavior, since older students know the rules (Jackson,1968), and are more mature (Brophy,1983), reinforcing the elimination of the social and behavioral development role from the secondary teacher's job description. Doyle (1986) has pointed out that a secondary teacher needs students to cooperate in class (i.e., to be quiet and not interfere with the learning of others), but the student is responsible for his/her own engagement and learning. For example, secondary science teachers narrowly defined their role as presenting content, while it was the student's responsibility to learn (Gallagher,1986; Gallagher & Tobin,1987).

Variance in student motivation and skills provides a second rationale. For example, school policies often reinforce the view of the secondary teacher as a content specialist who should not have to deal with the management problems presented by some less cooperative students, thus upholding de jure authority. Teachers are often relieved of management burdens by discipline codes and support professionals (Duke,1986; Jones,1986). Within this type of system, teachers may focus narrowly on the need of the student to change his/her behavior, without questioning whether some aspect of instruction may be the origin of the problem (Berliner & Fisher,1985; Duke & Jones,1984;

Jones,1986). Perceived variance in student motivation and skills may not only alter a teacher's management style, but also his/her teaching methods. Frequently, social studies teachers state that students lack the interest and/or ability to engage in inquiry oriented activities such as critical discussion (McKee,1988; Shaver,1981; Thornton,1988; Weiss,1978), causing the teacher to perennially postpone inquiry activities in order to cover the basics (Stake,et al.,1978).

Finally, a rationale for such control-oriented teaching and management methods can be found in the practice of ability grouping. While debating the pros and cons of ability grouping is not the purpose of this study, it should be recognized that ability grouping presents teachers with groups of students which differ in demands related to classroom management. Studies carried out primarily in junior high classes document higher rates of off-task behavior and longer transition times in low ability classes (Evertson,1982; Lee & Gallagher,1986; Metz,1978). Although the learning difficulties of these students may well increase management problems, teachers have been observed to alter their teaching methods (e.g., by offering fewer opportunities to participate, less variety in activities, less encouragement, fewer high interest activities) for these groups in a way which may produce more off-task behavior (Evertson,1982; Lee & Gallagher,1986; Metz,1978; Tobin & Gallagher,1987b). It seems rational that such routine and limiting teaching methods would produce satiation and boredom which would lead to off-task behavior (Kounin,1970). On the other hand, given that older students seek to reduce ambiguity and risk, and may often be concerned about grades, they may indeed be willing to exchange cooperation in boring, low-demand activities for an easy grade (Doyle,1983).

Clearly, the social studies teacher is faced with a difficult situation

if he/she wishes to insure a high level of opportunity to learn for every student. In teaching social studies, the teacher must constantly struggle with the dilemma of emphasizing either content coverage or in-depth theme/skill development. The high school teacher also works to develop student responsibility for his/her own learning while still insuring that the student learns. Additionally, variance in student characteristics (ability, skills, motivation) complicates the task of providing appropriate opportunity to learn. Recalling the Conceptual Model, teacher plans and activities are heavily influenced by a variety of factors including administrative priorities, texts, curricula, objectives, tests, ability grouping structure, and working conditions. In order to fully analyze the opportunity provided to students, and the role of management demands in determining instruction, the study must focus on two levels. As in the science education studies of Tobin and Gallagher (1987b), intensive observation of the classroom, plus interviewing the teacher can yield a determination of students' opportunity to learn. Nevertheless, fully understanding why a teacher makes certain decisions will require attention to and reflection on the array of contextual factors which influence the teacher.

Purpose of the Study

Given the nascent state of our understanding relative to effective teaching methods and management strategies utilized in high school social studies classrooms, there any multiple questions which need to be addressed. The first goal of this study is to describe and analyze how social studies teachers translate goals into teaching activities for students. Much of our information relative to social studies instructional practice dates from the major NSF sponsored studies of the late 1970's. In addition, none of the research carried out previously in social studies classes focusses

specifically on teaching methods and management strategies. The second goal of the study is to explain why teachers make particular decisions by examining the primary influences on the teacher. Once again, the vast majority of classroom management studies carried out to date failed to examine the larger context of teaching, therefore missing the opportunity to understand why teachers make particular decisions. Finally, the study seeks to understand the consequences of particular teacher goals, teaching methods, and management strategies on students' opportunity to learn.

Study Design

In order to investigate the major influences on the teacher's decision making process, this study calls for a design quite different from those used previously in classroom management research. Typically, these studies either ignored context by aggregating data across teachers and schools (e.g.,Evertson,et al.,1980) or by conducting a case study with little discussion of contextual factors (e.g.,Doyle,et al.,1985). The investigation of various influencing factors will be possible by carrying out the research in six high schools which vary on key characteristics. Within each school, two United States History teachers, and two classes per teacher will be selected for observation and analysis. United States History was chosen since all students in Illinois are required to take this class, thereby providing a large number of class sections enrolling students of all levels of ability and motivation from which to sample. In addition to variety in the high school setting, teachers and classes will be selected so as to insure a diversity of teaching styles and ability group levels for comparison. Through classroom observation, as well as teacher and department chair interviews, data will be gathered for investigation of the study questions. This paper reports findings from the first phase of this larger study, which will be completed by

the end of the 1988-1989 academic year.

Sample and Methods

A purposeful sampling strategy was utilized for the study in order to assure selection of six schools which vary on a number of characteristics such as: SES and racial background of students, curricular programs, working conditions, ability group structures, and United States History text utilized. The two schools selected for data collection in the first phase of the study (Adams High School and Jefferson High School) (see table 2 for school, class, and teacher characteristics) are fairly similar in terms of their suburban location, advantaged financial situation, and levels of teacher experience and education. Social studies curriculum and requirements, ability grouping structure, and teacher work load are similar in the two settings. Given these similarities on a variety of potential influencing factors, the study's second question concerning influences on teacher decision-making will only be briefly addressed in this paper. Nonetheless, as can be noted in the table, there are some differences in the clientele of the two schools. The student body at Jefferson is quite diverse (22.7% low income and 46% minority), a small portion of students do follow a vocational program, and fewer students take the ACT.

Two teachers and four classes per school were selected for the first phase of the study. Only teachers with several years of experience, a master's degree, and a schedule containing different United States History ability groups were considered. This sampling procedure insured that department chairs could not suggest their favored teachers for observation; however, the teachers selected are evidently well regarded by their chairs. Thus, the following teachers and classes were observed: Adams: Mr. Wolcott- honors and regular, Mr. Marshall- regular and remedial; Jefferson: Mr.

Dearborn- honors and regular, Mr. Smith- mixed honors/regular and remedial.

Although teachers will be observed for a total of 10 days by the end of the study, this paper analyzes data obtained from the first 5-6 day sequence of observation. At Adams this consisted of an entire week, while at Jefferson data was collected over two weeks due to scheduling of social studies electives. Writing a narrative record of classroom events was the primary data collection method (Devault, Harnischfeger, Wiley,1978). Notes were taken on the content of the lesson, teaching methods, management strategies, verbal contributions of students, tasks assigned (in-class and for homework), and off-task behavior of students; a time log was kept as well. As soon after the lesson as possible, the narrative data was reviewed, and additional notes on the lesson made. Several steps were taken to assure reliability of observations, including maintaining a clinical and unbiased perspective during observations; delayed coding of data (Devault, Harnischfeger, & Wiley,1978); continual checking back to coding definitions and guidelines; and consulting with senior researchers about any data which were difficult to categorize. In addition, background information on factors influencing instruction was obtained by interviewing the department chair and teachers. Talking with both the chairs and teachers allowed for valuable triangulation of information.

Results

The study yielded both quantitative and qualitative data which can be analyzed in order to assess how teachers translate goals into learning activities, thereby shaping the students' opportunity to learn. Time and activity information gleaned from the narrative was coded and categorized, and is displayed in a series of tables entitled, Class Time by Student Exposure to Various Learning Opportunities and Activities. (See tables and accompanying explanation in the appendix.) In a gross fashion, these tables capture

student exposure to learning opportunities as organized by the teacher. All instruction observed was conducted in a whole group setting, and is divided over six instructional formats, ranging from lecture to lecture/discussion (no true discussion was observed), plus seatwork, testing, and audio-visual. Communication about learning tasks is divided into verbal and non-verbal components, with the non-verbal category encompassing paper passing without accompanying oral instruction from the teacher. Finally, the last four categories capture time which is spent in non-academic pursuits, including management of student behavior and time in which the teacher does not assign tasks to the students. It should be noted that time in the last two categories is not directed by the teacher; therefore it is possible, but not common, for students to use this time voluntarily in the pursuit of learning. While these tables reveal much concerning opportunity to learn in a particular classroom, the examination of qualitative data relating to the teacher's instructional methods and managerial strategies promotes a much fuller understanding.

Although tables on all eight classrooms are included in the appendix, this analysis will focus on two pairs of teachers: Mr. Marshall and Mr. Smith (remedial classes); Mr. Dearborn and Mr. Wolcott (regular classes). This pairing allows analysis of each teacher in one class, and compares teachers across schools. When informative, insights concerning the teacher's other class section will be included. In each instance, the teacher's goals, use of time, and instructional/managerial strategies will be analyzed. Additionally, factors influencing the teacher's decisions will be briefly addressed.

Differential Opportunity in Two Remedial Classes

Students in both remedial classes were reported to read at a middle school level, and both schools utilize a text specially designed for use with

high school students who read at a 6-8 grade level. On the other hand, the classes differ by size and student characteristics. An average of 16 students, all white, were present in Mr. Marshall's class, while 83% of Mr. Smith's class of roughly 21 students were of minority background, with many from low-income families. Although both departments seek to limit remedial classes to 20 students, Mr. Smith has an enrollment of 23.

Mr. Marshall cited as goals for his students both the acquisition of critical thinking and learning skills and the content-related goal of learning cultural language and values. With the remedial students, however, he feels he must focus solely on the skill goal. The consequence of this orientation can be noted in the content for the week of observation: the War of 1812 and the growth of nationalism. (All observations occurred in February, early in the second semester.) One day was spent in a department organized guest lecture on the West (the time period/topic that most of the regular classes were studying). Work in this class focusses on worksheets which must be completed for every chapter.

Examination of the Class Time table reveals that only 76.5% of student time was definitely allocated for instruction, divided over lecture (37.5%), lecture/recitation (28.5%), and seatwork formats (10.5%). Communication about learning tasks was minimal, primarily due to the routine work system of worksheets; nonetheless, 4.5% of the total time was spent collecting homework and passing out new worksheets. Since students were frequently late to class, and homework was often turned in as students arrived, some time was wasted at the start of class. The most striking finding concerning this class is the large amount of total time (15.5%) consumed by non-academic pursuits. Note that Mr. Marshall expended much time in managing student behavior, and gave students a great deal of free time.

Examination of the qualitative data reveals a classroom that can be

characterized as a "production system" (Doyle and Sanford,1985); students and the teacher focussed on completion of the worksheets. Although the worksheets (teacher designed and based on the text) contained multiple writing tasks which had the potential to challenge the students, the students negotiated to reduce work requirements (Doyle,1983), and the teacher complied by giving selected "free answers." In short, both the instructional and managerial approach of this teacher appears to be reactive. The teacher typically presents a chapter introduction (as he did on 2/1); however, no time was initially spent elaborating on the worksheet tasks in order for students to succeed on their own during seatwork or homework endeavors. Students were frequently off-task during teacher-directed instruction, and less than 1/3 were on-task at any given time during seatwork. The teacher attempted to set behavioral standards; yet they were rarely upheld. For example, students who were asked to not get up during lecture, or not throw pencils during seatwork, continued such behavior immediately, or a few moments after an ineffective desist.

Some contrast to this pattern was seen during the 2/1 chapter introduction on sectionalism. During this class, the teacher involved the majority of students in a recitation concerning sectionalism in the early 1800's as a cause of the Civil War. This session was quickly paced, the teacher called on students to attend, selected non-volunteers to answer questions, and praised students for correct answers to a much greater extent than in other class sessions. Despite these proactive teaching and management techniques, a large number of students exhibited off-task behavior during this session. Perhaps the prevalence of lax standards on most days prevented this particular lesson from effectively maintaining the attention of students to the learning task (Sanford & Evertson,1981). In fact, on the next day the

teacher praised the students for their performance on 2/1, then seemed to respond to the mood of the class by admitting that they were already looking forward to the weekend. As a result, Mr. Marshall eased work requirements by giving students some "free answers" and a lengthy seatwork period. On the day this worksheet was due (2/3), he further lowered standards for completion (McNeil,1986; Thornton,1988) by eliminating one of the more difficult writing tasks contained on the worksheet.

During the interview, Mr. Marshall commented that after 22 years of teaching, he does not need to formally plan lessons; instead, he relies on his content knowledge, the worksheets, and his rapport with students to achieve success. Mr. Marshall's background in alternative education may help to explain the high priority given to maintaining rapport with students, and his complete autonomy in regard to this class explains his ability to eschew content goals. These factors and beliefs lead to a reactive teaching and management style that appears to truncate student opportunity to learn history skills and content. Despite the high degree of off-task behavior observed in this class, Mr. Marshall characterized the regular class which was observed as the most difficult group he has ever managed. As can be noted from the Class Time table for this regular class, little time was actually spent in behavior management; however, much time was spent in lecture, or consumed by no task or free time. In this class, it appeared that Mr. Marshall coped with management problems by either not dealing with the students, or firmly controlling them through lecture techniques.

In contrast to Mr. Marshall's narrowly defined goal, Mr. Smith holds four diverse goals for all of his students, from remedial to honors level: to convey a body of knowledge, develop thinking skills, help students become successful and develop a love of learning, and help the students learn self-discipline. Although Mr. Smith generally employs a chronological approach,

during the period of observation he broke from the chronology after Reconstruction to spend a week on Black History and the civil rights movement. He then reentered the chronology, at the period of Westward expansion, by drawing a parallel between the experience of black and Native Americans. Work in this class consists of homework tasks (3-4 nights per week, often from the text), and a variety of in-class activities.

Multiple differences in the use of class time can be seen between Mr. Smith's and Mr. Marshall's remedial classes. Mr. Smith actually devoted slightly less time to instruction (72.7%), primarily using the lecture/recitation (32.2%) and audio-visual (32.2%) formats. What is most unique about this sequence of instruction is the large allocation of time to communication about learning tasks (20.0%). Not only did Mr. Smith give extensive information on learning tasks (6.3%), but he frequently elaborated on the tasks (5.4%), and gave students extensive feedback on task performance (8.1%). Feedback was given to the entire class, as well as to individual students as Mr. Smith circulated to collect homework. Two examples of task elaboration are worth noting. Mr. Smith enhanced the students' opportunity to learn from the films by elaborating the questions that students should be able to answer, or the conclusions they should be able to draw at the end of the film; information about a homework task was elaborated by explaining the type of task to be encountered (reading graphs to make conclusions), and what the task entailed. Extensive use of the text for homework assignments reduced time spent in non-verbal communication about tasks; it would be interesting to observe whether Mr. Smith continues the flow of verbal instruction in instances when he does have to pass a large volume of paper. Finally, note that Mr. Smith spent less than half (7.2%) of the total time that Mr. Marshall did in clearly non-academic tasks. Although students in Mr. Smith's class

might spend a few moments at the beginning of each day in a no task situation, Mr. Smith expected and received calm and quiet behavior from the students, as opposed to the anti-academic tone frequently set in Mr. Marshall's classroom.

In contrast to the 80.0% of time that Mr. Marshall utilized for instruction and verbal communication, Mr. Smith attempted to actively engage students in academic pursuits for 92.7% of class time. Mr. Smith's instruction was briskly paced, goals for the day were stated verbally and written on the board, visual aides were extensively used, and students were monitored and assisted in their note taking. If Mr. Marshall's handling of homework and student behavior could be termed reactive, Mr. Smith's style appeared to be proactive. Given the amount of time devoted to verbal communication about learning tasks, Mr. Smith clearly expected students to use their knowledge gained though homework to further in-class tasks. During lecture/recitation segments, Mr. Smith asked questions that students were to answer given knowledge gleaned from the text or films. In fact, on one day when the pace of recitation lagged, Mr. Smith gently chided multiple members of the class for failing to complete homework, clearly making the point that a successful lesson depends on their out-of-class efforts.

The extremely low level of off-task behavior in this class can be attributed to proactive teaching techniques, high-interest content, and management strategies which uphold high standards for behavior (e.g., Brophy,1983). Mr. Smith balanced firm standards with a great deal of warmth and affection for students. Besides using techniques such as structured recitation with notetaking to maintain student attention and prevent off-task behavior, Mr. Smith exhibited withitness (Kounin,1970) behaviors which allowed him to prevent potential problems from occurring or escalating. For example, in contrast to Mr. Marshall's pencil throwing problem, Mr. Smith once noted a student about to throw a pencil, inquired as to who needed a pencil, and

firmly told the student to pass the pencil.

Mr. Smith faces the constraints of working with remedial students who often have difficulty completing tasks and retaining information, yet he does not sacrifice content goals as does Mr. Marshall. In line with Mr. Smith's proactive style, he noted that he teaches the civil rights movement at this point in the year so that students can see the connections between the 1860's and 1960's. Certainly, this content-related decision allows him to present high-interest material, and make valuable cause and effect points that may never be offered to students in Mr. Marshall's class. Careful planning and goal setting, as well as utilization of knowledge gained from colleagues and inservice courses were cited by Mr. Smith as key influences on his instruction. The synergy between Mr. Smith's in-class recitation activities and communication about students' homework learning tasks aids students in achieving his multiple goals. This same synergy is reflected in the Class Time profile of his honors/regular class.

Clearly, differential opportunity to learn United States History exists in these two remedial classes. First, opportunity to learn is limited in Mr. Marshall's class simply because he devotes less time to clearly academic pursuits. In addition, the lack of effective classroom management and instructional skills reduces the amount of time that multiple students in his class actually devote to the learning opportunities presented. In contrast, students in Mr. Smith's class appear to have a higher level of opportunity to learn given effective use of in-class time, adequate preparation of students for learning tasks, and active teacher monitoring of student behavior. In terms of the Harnischfeger-Wiley model of the teaching-learning process (1985), Mr. Smith allows more time for learning, reduces time needed to learn by thoroughly explaining tasks, and insures that students devote more of their

time to active learning, all of which should result in increased achievement.

Differential Methods and Opportunity in Two Regular Classes

Similar contrasts can be seen in the characteristics of the regular level classes at Adams and Jefferson High Schools. At Jefferson, Mr. Dearborn's class is larger (an average of 26 students) and is comprised primarily of minority students (70%- primarily black, including one new Asian student with limited English skills). In contrast, Mr. Wolcott's class at Adams is comprised of white students, with an average of 16 present. While in the remedial comparison it seemed that the more effective teacher (Mr. Smith) coped successfully with a somewhat larger class, we shall see that this is not the case with the regular classes.

Mr. Dearborn has perhaps the most unique teaching methods in the sample. He attempts to meet his goal of teaching students how to learn by requiring students to present oral research reports. While Mr. Dearborn prides himself on variety in his teaching methods, in reality the routinized work system consists of teacher and student lecture sequences, interspersed with viewing of videotapes. Students typically are required to read part of a chapter each evening, write answers to questions in their notebooks, and conduct research for their occasional reports (two per student in a nine-week quarter). Usually two topics are scheduled each day (e.g., topics covered during the observation period included Grant, railroads, the Indian story, and business organization), which are covered by student reports and/or teacher lecture plus video. The extensive use of research reports gives these students the unique opportunity to truly understand that history is more than the unidimensional perspective given in their text; unfortunately, other instructional and managerial strategies utilized by Mr. Dearborn seem to undermine the learning potential of the research tasks.

During the particular week of instruction, Mr. Dearborn spent only 64.5% of total time in instructional formats, primarily lecture (46.4%). The first day of observation coincided with the first day of the semester, which Mr. Dearborn used to give task information for the semester, as well as a fair amount of free time (9 minutes). Time spent communicating about learning tasks was probably inflated due to this first day, since maintaining such a routine task system would typically require little oral communication. As in Mr. Marshall's class, a quite large amount of time (15.0%) was consumed by non-academic pursuits, especially free time and no task assigned. Students were chronically late to this class, and since Mr. Dearborn made no visible effort to change the situation, extra time was consumed either in no task or in non-verbal communication categories (late students often delayed the start of class by dawdling in picking up the daily report outlines).

Besides limiting student opportunity to learn by inflating time spent in non-academic pursuits, the preponderance of teacher lecture and cursory checking of homework (and student understanding) may undermine Mr. Dearborn's goals. For example, daily student homework is only spot checked occasionally (on two days Mr. Dearborn walked quickly around the room and gave students three points if they had their notebooks out, which supposedly contained answers to the day's questions), and he rarely checked student understanding of the material by asking students questions. Thus, while Mr. Dearborn wished students to take on the role of research historian, it seemed that once the student report (which is, of course, more lecture) concluded, Mr. Dearborn continued in his teacher-centered manner to dominate instruction (e.g. Common,1985; McNeil,1986). Students were often encouraged to question each other, or asked if they had questions on the material; however, Mr. Dearborn consistently undermined this opportunity to learn by allowing no wait-time, and by never scanning the room to see who might wish to speak.

As in the case of Mr. Marshall, Mr. Dearborn's management strategies appeared to be primarily reactive. Although students were typically cooperative, this does not mean that they were engaged (Doyle,1986); in fact, some students were observed to quietly socialize or fail to actively attend to the task at hand. On rare occasions Mr. Dearborn would notice an off-task behavior and ask the student to attend, but typically such mild off-task behavior would not be commented on. A potent example of Mr. Dearborn's reactive manner can be found in the lengthy behavior management segment on 2/15, in which he berated the students for generally not paying attention in class. He blamed the students for not paying attention, and stated that they must really have trouble attending in other classes in which the teacher has less variety, only lectures, and doesn't allow student reports. Mr. Dearborn certainly fails to consider that some of his instructional decisions may be the cause of student attention problems (Berliner & Fisher,1985).

An exception to the routinized system of teacher and student lecturing was observed on 2/8 when 22 minutes were allocated to recitation. Perhaps the high-interest information on the "genocide of the Indians" prompted Mr. Dearborn to question students and actually incorporate some of their knowledge gained from the homework assignment. Off-task behavior of individual students was much lower during this segment; however, as students became excited about the recitation, they became loud, and Mr. Dearborn asked for quiet three times in the last 10 minutes of the class. Clearly, he was uncomfortable with the recitation format and the exuberance shown by the students; like Mr. Marshall's handling of his regular class, Mr. Dearborn seemed to rely on lecture in order to maintain classroom control. Undoubtedly, their lecture response to the problem of maintaining control (Adams & Biddle,1970; McHoul,1978; McNeil,1986).

Although Mr. Dearborn believes that the teacher should act primarily as a coach, facilitating student learning but not directly imparting knowledge, his reliance on lecture prevents him from taking on that role (Common,1985). During the week of observation there was little evidence of the students getting feedback from the teacher; instead complete responsibility for attending to tasks and learning seemed to be placed on the students. While these methods may be more successful with highly motivated honors students (see the Class Time profile for Mr. Dearborn's honors class), some of the regular students may need more teacher elaboration about learning tasks and monitoring of student attention. Mr. Dearborn's extensive prior experience with a program (primarily for honors students) which relied on student self-direction in learning may well explain why he does not more readily tailor his instructional methods and classroom management strategies to the needs of regular students.

Mr. Wolcott cited three goals that he holds for his students: covering the content of history up to the present; teaching social studies skills, such as understanding another point of view and critical thinking; and teaching general skills, such as writing. Work in this class varies: students read, study the chapter, and complete various homework tasks; in class, Mr. Wolcott uses lecture/recitation, some seatwork, simulation games, films, etc. He noted that whenever he senses that students become bored, he changes his instructional method; thus, he avoids off-task behavior that might result from satiation (Kounin,1970). During the observation week, the content covered was similar to that in Mr. Dearborn's class; however, a test was given and on 2/3 the students played a simulation game concerning farming in the 1880's.

As in Mr. Smith's class, Mr. Wolcott appeared to fill as much time as possible in academic tasks, with 83.0% of the total time devoted to instruction through various formats. While Mr. Wolcott seems to prefer the

lecture/recitation format (32.5%), a fairly large portion of the week was consumed by lecture due to the large group guest lecture (1/30). Relatively little time was spent in verbal communication about tasks (7.0%), but written feedback in the form of returned homework and tests was given on several days. The fairly low amount of time in the non-verbal category (4.0%) can be explained by Mr. Wolcott's attempt to return papers before the bell. Little time was spent in behavior management or given to the students in the form of free time; in fact, Mr. Wolcott even used the remainder of the period following the exam to introduce the next topic of study. Thus, a quite small portion of time (6.0%) was exhausted by non-academic pursuits.

Like Mr. Smith, Mr. Wolcott increased the amount of time available for academic activities and also appeared to make better use of students' out-of-class learning. He utilized the recitation format to maintain student attention and check student understanding of the material and concepts. For example, one day he questioned and probed students to contribute examples of governmental reaction to a series of labor problems in the late 19th century and then asked the students to formulate a generalization concerning government action. In another instance of holding students accountable for their out-of-class learning, students were asked at the end of one day to review the 14th amendment for the next class session. This was evidently a common practice, as students actively discussed the amendment upon entering the classroom the following day. Their preparation allowed the teacher to spark a lively recitation concerning the response of women to the amendment.

There was a higher incidence of social off-task behavior in all classes observed at Adams, and the same was true of this particular regular class. Nonetheless, Mr. Wolcott actively monitored the behavior of students and attempted to hold them to high behavioral expectations by asking off-task

students to attend. Mr. Wolcott called on non-volunteers to answer questions more frequently than the other three teachers, and he often regained the attention of off-task students by asking them to answer an academic question. This tactic was often softened by the use of humor; students occasionally chimed in on some good natured ribbing of a peer who had momentarily lost track of the recitation. The use of high-interest activities, such as the farm simulation game, as well as the small class size, also help to explain the low rate of off-task behavior in this class. In comparison, Mr. Wolcott seemed to have more difficulty managing a larger, and more lively, group of honors students.

Utilization of varied instructional methods, as well as consistently holding students to high expectations concerning their behavior and oral participation seem to provide a high level of opportunity for these students. Like Mr. Smith, Mr. Wolcott's methods seem to be proactive - he appears to constantly reflect on the needs of the students and tailor his methods accordingly. Nonetheless, Mr. Wolcott did cite his heavy planning and grading load (two different advanced placement classes plus two honors United States History sections), as inadvertently influencing his plans for this regular group. Mr. Wolcott noted that this group of regular students was just reaching the stage where they could benefit from extensive essay writing; however, he seemed to insinuate that he might have speeded up that process if he had a lighter work load.

In perhaps a less dramatic fashion than in the comparison between the two remedial classes, differential opportunity to learn is also apparent between these regular classes. Both teachers may expose students to the expanse of United States History, but Mr. Dearborn's system seems to reduce history to a list of topics to be reported on, while Mr. Wolcott may be more successful in stressing continuity, themes, and cause and effect. Even if you allow for the

fact that Mr. Dearborn works with a much larger class, the use of extremely different instructional and monitoring strategies should result in Mr. Wolcott's students devoting more of their in- and out-of-class time to active learning of history. Finally, although Mr. Wolcott worries that by tailoring instruction to student needs he may not be pushing them fast enough, this strategy may be more beneficial than Mr. Dearborn's approach of minimally tailoring instruction to student needs and blaming students when they fail to meet his expectations. While Mr. Dearborn's report system may present the veneer of high expectations and rigorous learning opportunities, he seemed to accept the variable quality of the reports as a given, and offered little noticeable feedback to students on their task performance. On the other hand, Mr. Wolcott's proactive system allowed him to continually check the understanding of students, tailor his instruction, and insure that students were making progress toward the stated goals.

Implications

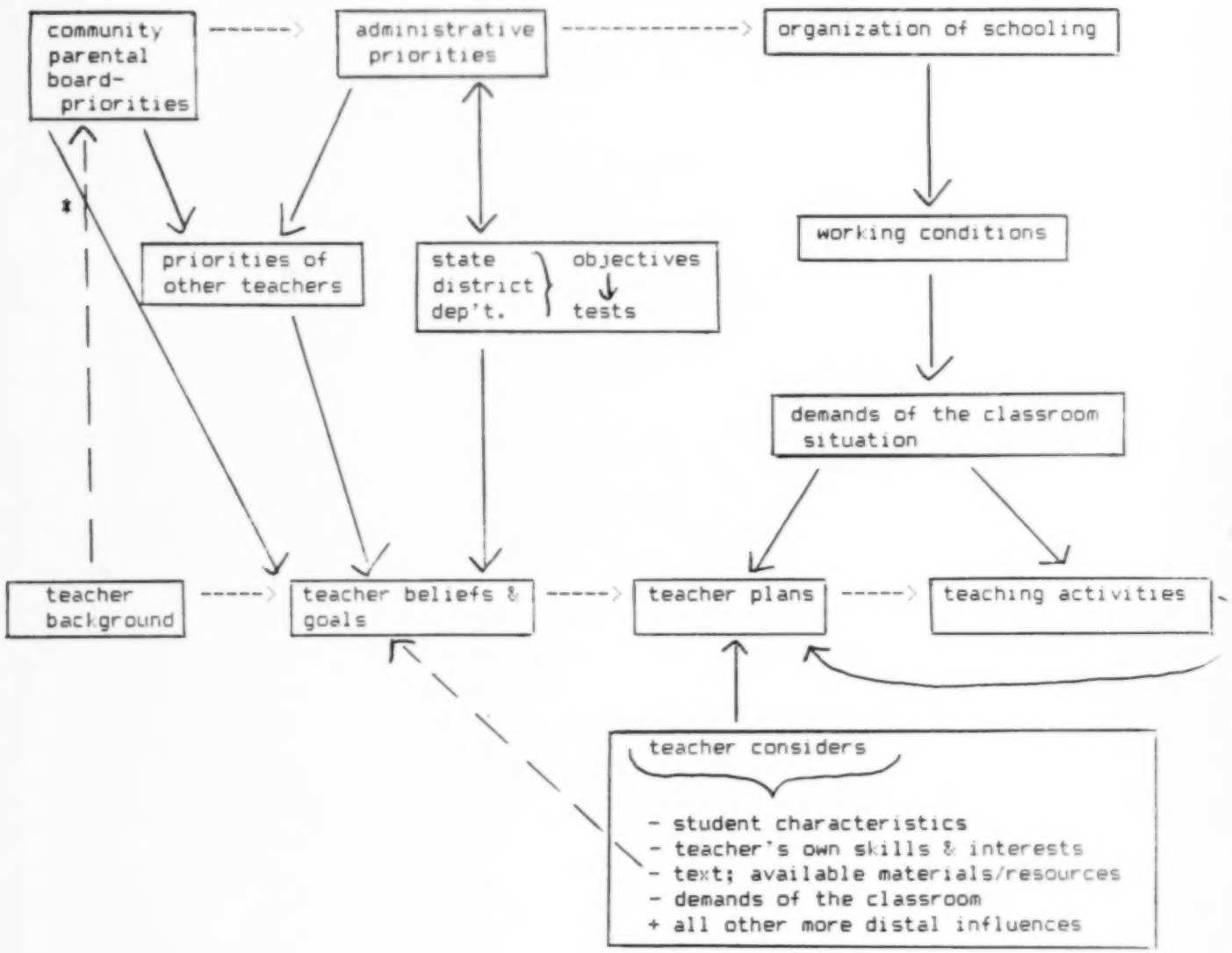
A study of this type has potential to generate new insights concerning the teaching-learning process. Data from the first phase of the study raise questions concerning what should be the appropriate balance of time spent in academic versus non-academic or management activities. While it may seem straightforward that teachers have a better chance of meeting their goals if they increase time in instructional formats and decrease time spent in non-academic activities, more research is needed on the intermediate role of communication about learning tasks. Particularly in the high school setting, the effectiveness of student time spent on homework tasks must be assessed and analyzed in regard to facilitation of in-class learning. As the results from Mr. Smith's class dramatically portray, elaboration concerning tasks may be a critical variable in increasing student learning.

In contrast to the dismal social studies instruction reported in numerous other studies, the four teachers observed attempt to deal meaningfully with the important issues involved in United States History. Nonetheless, both Mr. Smith and Mr. Dearborn seem to consistently offer greater opportunity to learn to their students. While we know from the social studies literature that lecture or lecture/recitation is the typical teaching method, in these classrooms, the use of highly interactive lecture/recitation seems to facilitate students' out-of-class learning as well as to aid in focussing their attention on in-class tasks. Given the inherent tension in social studies between content coverage and in-depth discussion and skill development (both Mr. Smith and Mr. Wolcott spoke eloquently concerning this dilemma), perhaps the key is to assist teachers in developing instructional methods (e.g., recitation) and managerial strategies (e.g., setting and upholding behavioral expectations) which allow them to involve and maintain the attention of students, yet still sustain a brisk pace toward content-related goals. Once results of the full study are available we will be able to raise more questions, further extend our conceptual understanding of the teaching-learning process, and provide insights that can guide the practice of novice, as well as experienced teachers.

APPENDIX

FIGURE 1

Conceptual Model
Factors Influencing Teacher Plans and Teaching Activities



------> typical direction of influence
- - -> possible direction of influence

* (teacher selected to fit community priorities)

Table 1

List of Factors Influencing Teacher Plans and Teaching Activities

External to Local

National- State- District- School- Departmental:

-objectives
-tests
-textbooks and other commercially produced materials

Local Context and Culture

-community, parental, and board priorities
-administrative priorities (including influence of evaluation procedures)
-organization of schooling:
    -curriculum: content and requirements
    -ability grouping structure
    -quantity of schooling (length of periods)
    -administrative procedures (attendance, announcements, discipline plan, etc.)

Working Conditions

-degree of teacher autonomy
-class size
-assignment (number of preparations & periods taught; other duties)
-availability of support personnel
-availability of instructional material & equipment
-quality of facilities

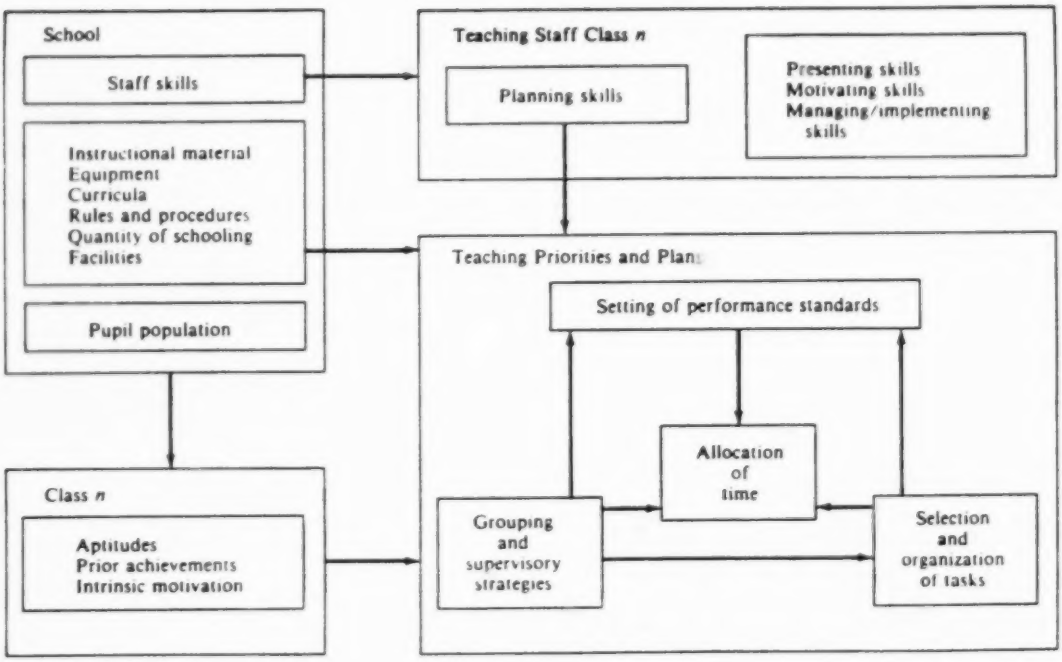
Teacher

-background
    -own K-12 experience
    -college liberal arts and major studies
    -preservice teacher education
    -graduate school; inservice; staff development
    -professional journals
    -prior teaching experience
-teacher knowledge, beliefs, and goals

Students/ Classroom

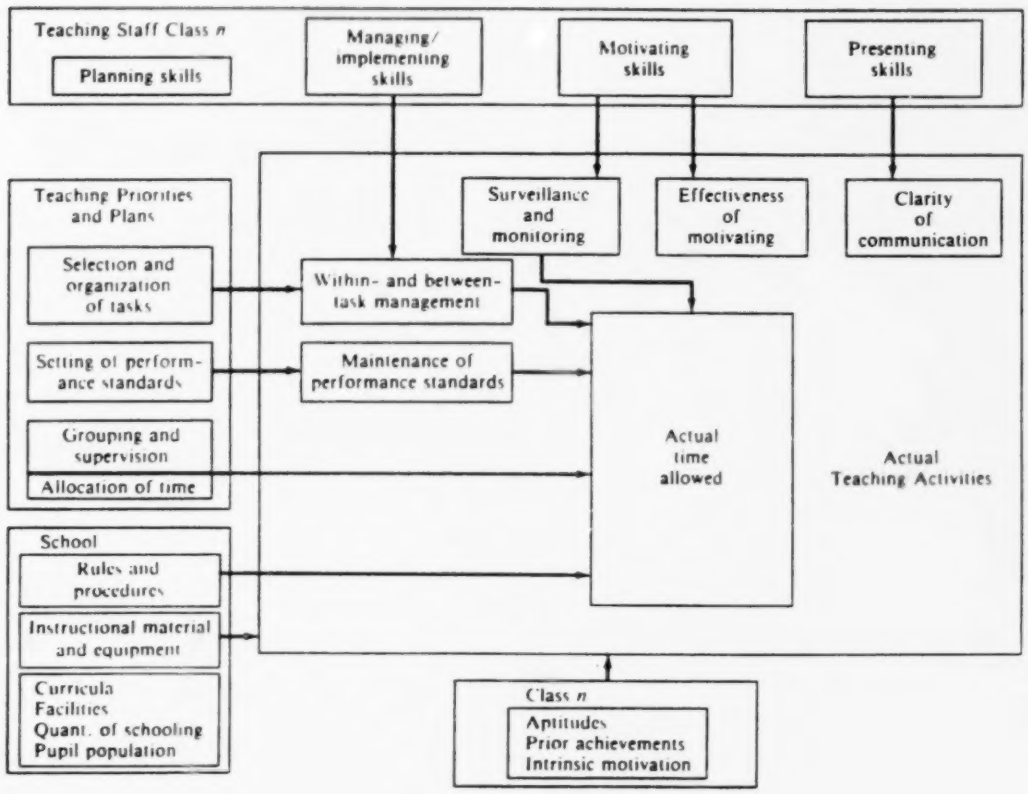
-student characteristics (aptitudes, prior learning, motivation
-demands of the classroom situation (classroom management)

Figure 2 Teaching Priorities and Plans: Structure and Determinants



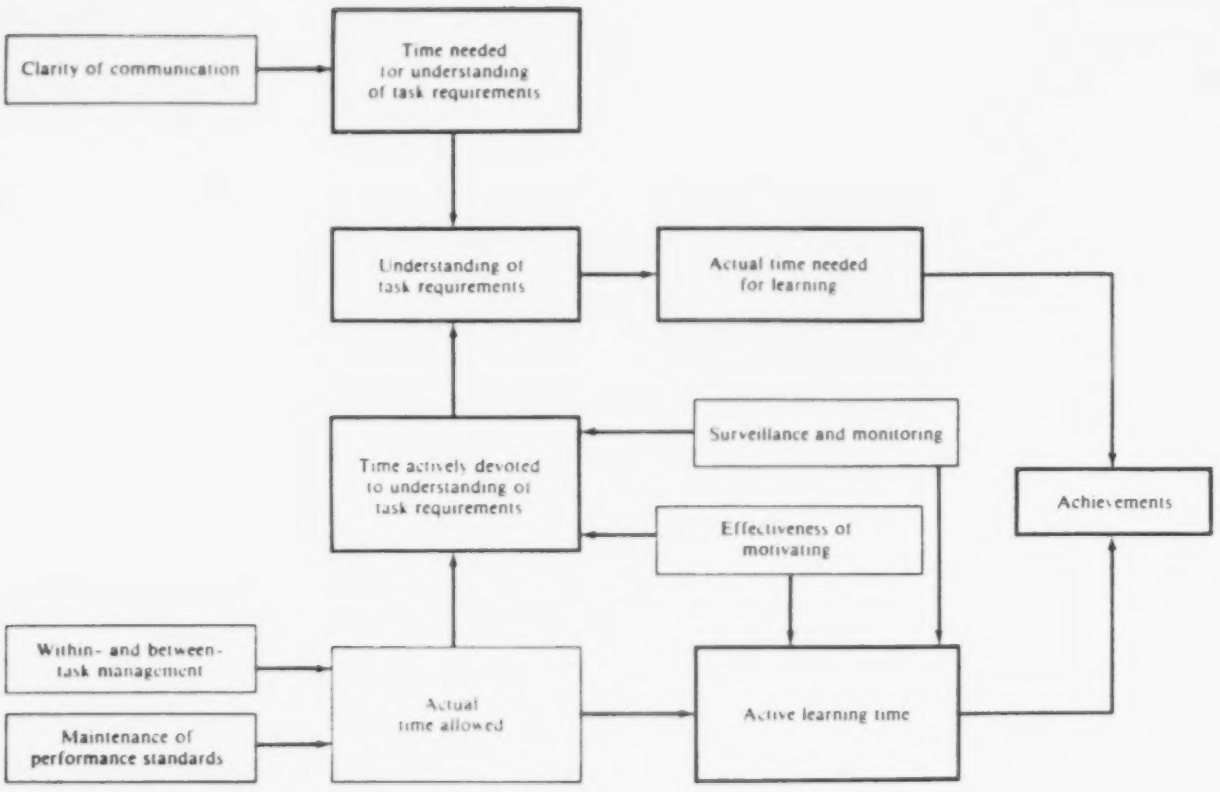
(Harnischfeger & Wiley, 1985, p. 145)

Figure 3 Actual Teaching Activities: Structure and Determinants



(Harnischfeger & Wiley, 1985, p. 149)

Figure 4 Pupil Pursuits: Structure and Determinants


Clarity of communication
Time needed for understanding of task requirements
Understanding of task requirements
Actual time needed for learning
Surveillance and monitoring
Time actively devoted to understanding of task requirements
Effectiveness of motivating
Achievements
Within- and between-task management
Maintenance of performance standards
Actual time allowed
Active learning time

(Harnischfeger & Wiley, 1985, p. 146)

Table 2

School, Teacher, and Class Characteristics

	School	
Characteristics*	Adams	Jefferson
Student Body		
% white	91.0	54.0
% black	0.1	39.0
% Hispanic	0.8	3.6
% Asian	8.5	3.1
% low-income	0.5	22.7
Curricular Enrollment		
% college preparatory	100	89.8
% vocational		10.2
Graduation Rate	98.8	89.3
1988 Average ACT Score	22.0	20.5
% taking the test	93.0	77.6

Schools and Teachers	**Class and Average Number of Students**	
Adams		
Mr. Marshall	remedial 16	regular 24
Mr. Wolcott	regular 16	honors 23
Jefferson		
Mr. Smith	remedial 21	honors/regular 22
Mr. Dearborn	regular 26	honors 22

Comparisons

remedial	Mr. Marshall; Mr. Smith
regular	Mr. Dearborn; Mr. Wolcott

* Data from 1987-88 State of Illinois Report Cards

Class Time by Student Exposure to Various Learning Opportunities and Activities

Adams High School
Mr. Marshall - Remedial

Date	Total Mins	Topic	Format of Instruction: Lecture	Lec/ Recitation	Lec/ Discuss	Seatwork	Test	Audio-Visual	Communication about Learning Tasks: Verbal: Task Info	Task Elabor	Feedback	Nonverbal	Management: Org Chores	Behavior Mngt	Non-Directed: Free Time	No Task Assign	Subtotals: Instruction	Verbal Comm	Nonverbal Comm	Mngt & Nondirect
1/30	40	Worksheet: War of 1812	12.0	15.0		1.0			3.0			2.0	2.0		5.0		28.0	3.0	2.0	7.0
1/31	40	Guest Lecture: The West	36.0											4.0			36.0	0.0	0.0	4.0
2/1	40	Chapter Intro: Sectionalism		31.0								4.0			4.0	1.0	31.0	0.0	4.0	5.0
2/2	40	Worksht: Growth of Nationalism	11.0	2.0		16.0			1.0		2.0	1.0	1.0	2.0	1.0	3.0	29.0	3.0	1.0	7.0
2/3	40	Security, Nationalism Worksht	16.0	9.0		4.0					1.0	2.0	1.0	6.0	1.0		29.0	1.0	2.0	8.0
	200	Total	75.0	57.0	0.0	21.0	0.0	0.0	4.0	0.0	3.0	9.0	4.0	12.0	11.0	4.0	153.0	7.0	9.0	31.0
		Percent of Total Time	37.5	28.5	0.0	10.5	0.0	0.0	2.0	0.0	1.5	4.5	2.0	6.0	5.5	2.0	76.5	3.5	4.5	15.5

Jefferson High School
Mr. Smith - Remedial

Date	Total Mins	Topic	Format of Instruction: Lecture	Lec/ Recitation	Lec/ Discuss	Seatwork	Test	Audio-Visual	Communication about Learning Tasks: Verbal: Task Info	Task Elabor	Feedback	Nonverbal	Management: Org Chores	Behavior Mngt	Non-Directed: Free Time	No Task Assign	Subtotals: Instruction	Verbal Comm	Nonverbal Comm	Mngt & Nondirect
2/6	45	Semester Grades, Ku Klux Klan	1.0	10.0	5.0			14.0	2.0	4.0	4.0		2.0			3.0	30.0	10.0	0.0	5.0
2/7	40	Segregation	1.0					30.0	2.0	1.0	6.0						31.0	9.0	0.0	0.0
2/8	45	Civil Rights	4.0	5.0				27.0	2.0	5.0						2.0	36.0	7.0	0.0	2.0
2/14	45	Civil Rights, Black History		31.0					4.0	2.0	3.0		1.0	3.0		1.0	31.0	9.0	0.0	5.0
2/15	45	Plains Indians	7.0	25.0					4.0		5.0			1.0	2.0	1.0	32.0	9.0	0.0	4.0
	220	Total	13.0	71.0	5.0	0.0	0.0	71.0	14.0	12.0	18.0	0.0	3.0	4.0	2.0	7.0	160.0	44.0	0.0	16.0
		Percent of Total Time	5.9	32.2	2.2	0.0	0.0	32.2	6.3	5.4	8.1	0.0	1.3	1.8	0.9	3.1	72.7	20.0	0.0	7.2

Class Time by Student Exposure to Various Learning Opportunities and Activities

Jefferson High School
Mr. Dearborn - Regular

Date	Total Mins	Topic	Format of Instruction: Lecture	Lec/ Recitation	Lec/ Discuss	Seatwork	Test	Audio-Visual	Communication about Learning Tasks: Verbal: Task Info	Task Elabor	Feedback	Nonverbal	Management: Org Chores	Behavior Mngt	Non-Directed: Free Time	No Task Assign	Subtotals: Instruction	Verbal Comm	Nonverbal Comm	Mngt & Nondirect
2/6	45	Grades, Report Instructions							15.0		9.0	12.0			9.0		0.0	24.0	12.0	9.0
2/7	40	Pres Grant, Railroads in West	30.0	5.0								2.0				3.0	35.0	0.0	2.0	3.0
2/8	45	Indian Story, Cattle Kingdom	17.0	22.0					1.0			2.0		2.0		1.0	39.0	1.0	2.0	3.0
2/13	45	Farmers in West	22.0	1.0				15.0	2.0	1.0				1.0		3.0	38.0	3.0	0.0	4.0
2/14	45	Business Organization	25.0	1.0					6.0		1.0	2.0		2.0	6.0	2.0	26.0	7.0	2.0	10.0
2/15	45	Robber Barons	29.0					4.0	1.0					8.0	1.0	2.0	33.0	1.0	0.0	11.0
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	265	Total	123.0	29.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	19.0	25.0	1.0	10.0	18.0	0.0	13.0	16.0	11.0	171.0	36.0	18.0	40.0
		Percent of Total Time	46.4	10.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	7.1	9.4	0.3	3.7	6.7	0.0	4.9	6.0	4.1	64.5	13.5	6.7	15.0

Adams High School
Mr. Wolcott - Regular

Date	Total Mins	Topic	Format of Instruction: Lecture	Lec/ Recitation	Lec/ Discuss	Seatwork	Test	Audio-Visual	Communication about Learning Tasks: Verbal: Task Info	Task Elabor	Feedback	Nonverbal	Management: Org Chores	Behavior Mngt	Non-Directed: Free Time	No Task Assign	Subtotals: Instruction	Verbal Comm	Nonverbal Comm	Mngt & Nondirect
1/30	40	Guest Lecture: The West	37.0						1.0				2.0				37.0	1.0	0.0	2.0
1/31	40	Labor & Mngt: late 1800's	11.0	25.0					1.0	1.0		1.0				1.0	36.0	2.0	1.0	1.0
2/1	40	Women's Movement, Urbanization		34.0								3.0		1.0	2.0		34.0	0.0	3.0	3.0
2/2	40	Gilded Age Pol, Reform, Fares	4.0	6.0			24.0		2.0			1.0		2.0		1.0	34.0	2.0	1.0	3.0
2/3	40	Farming Simulation Game	11.0			14.0			9.0			3.0			1.0	2.0	25.0	9.0	3.0	3.0
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	200	Total	63.0	65.0	0.0	14.0	24.0	0.0	13.0	1.0	0.0	8.0	2.0	3.0	3.0	4.0	166.0	14.0	8.0	12.0
		Percent of Total Time	31.5	32.5	0.0	7.0	12.0	0.0	6.5	0.5	0.0	4.0	1.0	1.5	1.5	2.0	83.0	7.0	4.0	6.0

Class Time by Student Exposure to Various Learning Opportunities and Activities

Adams High School
Mr. Marshall - Regular

Date	Total Mins	Topic	Format of Instruction: Lec-ture	Lec/ Recit-ation	Lec/ Dis-cuss	Seat-work	Test	Audio-Visual	Communication about Learning Tasks: Verbal: Task Info	Task Elabor	Feed-back	Non-verbal	Student/Room Management: Org Chores	Beha-vior Mngt	Free Time	No Task Assign	Subtotals: In-struc-tion	Verbal Comm	Non-verbal Comm	Mngt & Non-direct
1/30	40	Railroads, Gilded Age Politics	23.0						7.0		1.0	1.0	1.0		5.0	2.0	23.0	8.0	1.0	8.0
1/31	40	Guest Lecture: The West	38.0						2.0								38.0	2.0	0.0	0.0
2/1	40	Railroads, Gilded Age Politics					29.0		2.0			1.0			6.0	2.0	29.0	2.0	1.0	8.0
2/2	40	Workers' Rights	11.0	13.0	4.0				2.0		4.0	1.0		1.0	1.0	3.0	28.0	6.0	1.0	5.0
2/3	40	Homestead Steel Strike, Unions	9.0					25.0	1.0							5.0	34.0	1.0	0.0	5.0
	200	Total	81.0	13.0	4.0	0.0	29.0	25.0	14.0	0.0	5.0	3.0	1.0	1.0	12.0	12.0	152.0	19.0	3.0	26.0
		Percent of Total Time	40.5	6.5	2.0	0.0	14.5	12.5	7.0	0.0	2.5	1.5	0.5	0.5	6.0	6.0	76.0	9.5	1.5	13.0

Jefferson High School
Mr. Smith - Honors/Regular

Date	Total Mins	Topic	Format of Instruction: Lec-ture	Lec/ Recit-ation	Lec/ Dis-cuss	Seat-work	Test	Audio-Visual	Communication about Learning Tasks: Verbal: Task Info	Task Elabor	Feed-back	Non-verbal	Student/Room Management: Org Chores	Beha-vior Mngt	Free Time	No Task Assign	Subtotals: In-struc-tion	Verbal Comm	Non-verbal Comm	Mngt & Non-direct
2/6	45	Grades, History Fair, The West		7.0				14.0	9.0	7.0	3.0	3.0				2.0	21.0	19.0	3.0	2.0
2/7	40	The West		8.0				29.0	2.0	1.0							37.0	3.0	0.0	0.0
2/8	45	The West, Plain Indians	10.0	22.0			3.0		6.0	2.0		2.0					35.0	8.0	2.0	0.0
2/14	45	The West		37.0					5.0					1.0		2.0	37.0	5.0	0.0	3.0
2/15	45	Assign: Pres, Farms 1850-1900	6.0	8.0	11.0					13.0	3.0	4.0					25.0	16.0	4.0	0.0
	220	Total	16.0	82.0	11.0	0.0	3.0	43.0	22.0	23.0	6.0	9.0	0.0	1.0	0.0	4.0	155.0	51.0	9.0	5.0
		Percent of Total Time	7.2	37.2	5.0	0.0	1.3	19.5	10.0	10.4	2.7	4.0	0.0	0.4	0.0	1.8	70.4	23.1	4.0	2.2

Class Time by Student Exposure to Various Learning Opportunities and Activities

Jefferson High School
Mr. Dearborn - Honors

Date	Total Mins	Topic	Format of Instruction: Lecture	Lec/ Recitation	Lec/ Discuss	Seatwork	Test	Audio-Visual	Communication about Learning Tasks: Verbal: Task Info	Task Elabor	Feedback	Nonverbal	Student/Room Management: Org Chores	Behavior Mngt	Free Time	No Task Assign	Subtotals: Instruction	Verbal Comm	Nonverbal Comm	Mngt & Nondirect
2/6	48	Grades, Stock Markt Assignment	28.0			9.0			1.0		3.0	2.0			5.0		37.0	4.0	2.0	5.0
2/7	37	Pres Grant, Railroads in West	32.0						4.0							1.0	32.0	4.0	0.0	1.0
2/8	48	Indian Story, Cattle Kingdom	32.0	13.0					2.0			1.0				1.0	45.0	2.0	1.0	1.0
2/13	48	Farmers in West	24.0					14.0	3.0	1.0		3.0			3.0	3.0	38.0	4.0	3.0	6.0
2/14	47	Business Organization	40.0	3.0					2.0						1.0	1.0	43.0	2.0	0.0	2.0
2/15	50	Robber Barons	37.0					9.0	3.0						1.0		46.0	3.0	0.0	1.0
	278	Total	193.0	16.0	0.0	9.0	0.0	23.0	15.0	1.0	3.0	6.0	0.0	0.0	10.0	6.0	241.0	19.0	6.0	16.0
		Percent of Total Time	69.4	5.7	0.0	3.2	0.0	8.2	5.3	0.3	1.0	2.1	0.0	0.0	3.5	2.1	86.6	6.8	2.1	5.7

Adams High School
Mr. Wolcott - Honors

Date	Total Mins	Topic	Format of Instruction: Lecture	Lec/ Recitation	Lec/ Discuss	Seatwork	Test	Audio-Visual	Communication about Learning Tasks: Verbal: Task Info	Task Elabor	Feedback	Nonverbal	Student/Room Management: Org Chores	Behavior Mngt	Free Time	No Task Assign	Subtotals: Instruction	Verbal Comm	Nonverbal Comm	Mngt & Nondirect
1/30	40	Guest Lecture: The West	35.0						1.0							4.0	35.0	1.0	0.0	4.0
1/31	40	Gilded Age Politics, Reform					36.0		1.0			2.0			1.0		36.0	1.0	2.0	1.0
2/1	40	Farm Economics	12.0	14.0					6.0			2.0		4.0	1.0	1.0	26.0	6.0	2.0	6.0
2/2	40	Farming Simulation Game	7.0			22.0			8.0			2.0		1.0			29.0	8.0	2.0	1.0
2/3	40	Farmers and Monetary Policy	9.0	3.0		12.0	9.0					1.0		2.0		4.0	33.0	0.0	1.0	6.0
	200	Total	63.0	17.0	0.0	34.0	45.0	0.0	16.0	0.0	0.0	7.0	0.0	7.0	2.0	9.0	159.0	16.0	7.0	18.0
		Percent of Total Time	31.5	8.5	0.0	17.0	22.5	0.0	8.0	0.0	0.0	3.5	0.0	3.5	1.0	4.5	79.5	8.0	3.5	9.0

Explanation of Tables

Class Time by Student Exposure to Various Learning Opportunities and Activities

General Coding Procedures

The data in the table were obtained by coding a narrative report of classroom activities. Student activities were coded in one minute segments. Although not recorded in the table, the instructor, group size, materials used, and group structure were noted. Virtually all class time was spent with the teacher as instructor (with the exception of student reports (Mr. Dearborn) and a guest lecturer (Mr. Marshall and Mr. Wolcott), and all class time was spent in a whole group structure.

Format of Instruction

The format category attempts to capture the teaching method/primary activity of a lesson segment.

1) Lecture- a teacher presentation in which student questions may be allowed, but teacher questions to students are extremely limited.

2) Lecture/recitation- a teacher presentation with multiple teacher questions. Questions are fairly frequent, but are typically convergent in nature, and necessitate only a brief answer.

3) Lecture/discussion- a teacher led discussion in which the lesson is oriented around teacher questions which require a relatively long student response. Questions may be both convergent and divergent in nature, but a certain number are more open-ended. Nonetheless, a clear teacher question-student answer- teacher question pattern still predominates.

4) Discussion- the teacher plays a minimal role by asking fairly open questions and expecting students to be able to carry the bulk of the conversation. There is some evidence of student to student discussion. Many student answers are fairly lengthy. This format can also include a small group task in which the students are primarily to discuss. (This format was not observed in any session of the four classes.)

5) Seatwork- students work on a reading, worksheet, or writing task in class. The task is sustained (usually more than a few minutes) and is not integrated with another format. (For example, a two minute segment of guided practice within a lecture/recitation period is still coded lecture/recitation.) This format can also include a small group task in which the students are to primarily complete a written task, such as complete a worksheet or fill in a chart.

6) Testing- any quiz or exam which is a formal assessment of student learning.

7) Audio-visual- the primary instructional function is carried out by a technological device such as a film or filmstrip projector. (If the teacher provides the bulk of information, such as in a slide presentation, then lecture or lecture/recitation would be coded. If the teacher interrupts a

film for more than one minute, those individual segments should be coded lecture or lecture/recitation. Teacher interruptions or voice overs of less than one minute will continue to be coded AV; nonetheless, this style of delivery would be noted in the qualitative data. (Both Mr. Smith and Mr. Dearborn used this technique.)

8) Activity- this format includes a unique whole or small group activity which is not captured in the above categories, such as a simulation game, panel debate, formal and sustained role playing, etc. (The farm simulation game conducted in Mr. Wolcott's class is an example of such an activity; however, it was carried out using lecture and seatwork formats, and was coded as such.)

Communication About Learning Tasks

Verbal

1) Task Information- The teacher gives directions or instructions concerning a task (homework or in-class) with no elaboration. Directions focus on the technical aspects of the assignment, such as the chapter to read, questions to answer, or the due date. Also included would be information relating only to the technical aspects of a test, such as the grading scale, or the type of items to be included.

2) Task Elaboration- The teacher elaborates on a task assignment by linking it to content previously discussed, engaging students in brief guided practice related to the task, or clearly linking the task to broader goals. For example, the teacher explains how the assignment builds on what they have just discussed in class.

3) Feedback to Students- This category captures feedback to students on task-related performance, and may be given to the entire class, or systematically to individual students. Feedback may concern student performance in class, on homework, or on a test. Also included would be information which promotes student performance, such as clarifying evaluative criteria for a task, or motivational speeches in regard to student academic performance. Homework checking in which feedback is given to students would also be coded in this category.

Non-verbal

Included are physical aspects of task facilitation such as passing or collecting papers; however, no information or instruction is given to the students simultaneously. Perfunctory checking of homework in which no feedback is given to students would also be included.

Student and Room Management

1) Organizational Chores- Includes various organizational and administrative tasks such as taking attendance (if students are actively involved), changing the seating arrangement, or collecting forms (such as for a field trip) which are not integrally related to academic tasks.

2) Behavior Management- Managing the behavior of the entire class or individual students. Includes time spent trying to get students to be quiet and attend to academic tasks. Also coded would be lectures concerning the

behavior of students.

Non-Teacher Directed

(Note that in this category, the students are not expected by the teacher to engage in a particular task. During this time, it may be possible, though not typical, for the student to volutarily use this time as an opportunity to learn.)

1) Free Time- The teacher gives students free time to do as they wish. Not included in this category would be seatwork time in which the teacher expects students to complete an academic task related to the class. Free time most often occurs at the end of class; students typically socialize.

2) No Task- This category occurs when the teacher is typically occupied and has failed to give the students a task. Frequently occurs at the beginning of class, but may occur at any time.

Subtotals

1) Instruction: Various Formats- The sum of all instructional formats. This figure represents all direct opportunities for students to receive/ engage in instruction.

2) Verbal Communication About Learning Tasks- The sum of verbal communication categories. This figure represents the opportunity students have to understand academic tasks, and receive academic feedback.

3) Non-verbal Communication About Learning Tasks- this figure is simply carried over.

4) Management and Non-teacher Directed- The sum of the remaining categories. This category captures time that is not organized to further academic learning.

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